AD		

Award Number: DAMD17-01-1-0134

TITLE: Analysis of the DNA Damage Signaling Network Important

for Prevention of Breast Cancer

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Dr. Stephen J. Elledge

CONTRACTING ORGANIZATION: Baylor College of Medicine

Houston, TX 77030

REPORT DATE: June 2003

TYPE OF REPORT: Annual

PREPARED FOR: U.S. Army Medical Research and Materiel Command

Fort Detrick, Maryland 21702-5012

DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT: Approved for Public Release;

Distribution Unlimited

The views, opinions and/or findings contained in this report are those of the author(s) and should not be construed as an official Department of the Army position, policy or decision unless so designated by other documentation.

20030902 157

## REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE

Form Approved OMB No. 074-0188

Public reporting burden for this collection of information is estimated to average 1 hour per response, including the time for reviewing instructions, searching existing data sources, gathering and maintaining the data needed, and completing and reviewing this collection of information. Send comments regarding this burden estimate or any other aspect of this collection of information, including suggestions for reducing this burden to Washington Headquarters Services, Directorate for Information Operations and Reports, 1215 Jefferson Davis Highway, Suite 1204, Artington, VA 22202-4302, and to the Office of Management and Budget, Paperwork Reduction Project (0704-0188), Washington, DC 20503

1. A	GENCY	USE	ONLY
(Le	ave bla	nk)	

2. REPORT DATE
June 2003

3. REPORT TYPE AND DATES COVERED

Annual (15 May 2002 - 14 May 2003)

#### 4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE

Analysis of the DNA Damage Signaling Network Important for Prevention of Breast Cancer

5. FUNDING NUMBERS

DAMD17-01-1-0134

#### 6. AUTHOR(S)

Dr. Stephen J. Elledge

## 7. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) 8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION

Baylor College of Medicine Houston, TX 77030

REPORT NUMBER

E-Mail: selledge@bcm.tmc.edu

# 9. SPONSORING / MONITORING AGENCY NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES)

U.S. Army Medical Research and Materiel Command Fort Detrick, Maryland 21702-5012

10. SPONSORING / MONITORING AGENCY REPORT NUMBER

#### 11. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES

#### 12a. DISTRIBUTION / AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Approved for Public Release; Distribution Unlimited

12b. DISTRIBUTION CODE

#### 13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 Words)

Women with germline mutations in the breast and ovarian cancer gene 1 (Brcal) have an approximately 50% lifetime of developing ovarian cancer and almost 90% chance of breast cancer. Brcal mutations account for a significant percentage of all breast cancer cases. It appears that the main role for the Brcal protein in cells is to prevent the accumulation of mutations in key growth regulatory genes n response to DNA damage. BRCAl is phosphorylated in response to DNA damage by an elaborate surveillance mechanism called a checkpoint, which detects DNA damage and prevents the accumulation of mutation. We are investigating the role these phosphorylation events play in the regulation of BRCAl. We have mapped phosphorylation sites and will mutate them to determine their function. We are also planning to investigate the mechanism through with the BRCAl protein localizes to sites of DNA damage within cells.

#### 14. SUBJECT TERMS

Breast cancer

15. NUMBER OF PAGES

14

17. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION
OF REPORT

OF THIS PAGE

18. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION

Unclassified

19. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF ABSTRACT

20. LIMITATION OF ABSTRACT

Unclassified NSN 7540-01-280-5500

Unclassified

Unlimited

16. PRICE CODE

### **Table of Contents**

Cover	1
SF 298	2
Table of Contents	3
Introduction	4
Body	5
Key Research Accomplishments	10
Reportable Outcomes	10
Conclusions	10
References	11
Appendices	N/A

### Introduction

Maintenance of genomic integrity is crucial for the development and health of organisms. Cell cycle checkpoints and DNA repair mechanisms help ensure the distribution of an intact genome to all cells and progeny. The inactivation of many of the genes involved in these activities have been linked to syndromes that cause a predisposition to cancer in humans. The ATM, Brca1, and Brca2 genes are three such tumor suppressors involved in preventing genetic damage (1). Mutations in ATM cause ataxia telengiectasia (A-T), a disorder characterized by atrophy of the cerebellum and thymus, immunodeficiency, premature aging, predisposition to cancer, and sensitivity to ionizing radiation (2). Furthermore, heterozygous carriers of a dysfunctional ATM gene are predisposed to breast cancer (3). Mutations in Brca1 and Brca2 are linked to inherited, early-onset breast cancer (4). Mutations in Brca1, Brca2, or ATM cause defects in cellular proliferation, genomic instability, and sensitivity to DNA damage (5-7).

ATM is a member of a protein family related to phosphoinositide kinases that includes ATR, *MEC1*, *TEL1* and *RAD3*. These proteins are essential for signaling the presence of DNA damage and activating cell cycle checkpoints (8). ATM is activated in response to DNA damage and is required for efficient DNA double strand break repair and optimal phosphorylation and activation of the p53, c-Abl, and Chk2 proteins that promote apoptosis or cell cycle arrest (9-14).

The Brca1 and Brca2 proteins form a complex with Rad51, a RecA homologue required for homologous recombinational repair of DNA double stranded breaks (6,15-17). These three proteins localize to discrete nuclear foci during S phase of the cell cycle, share developmental expression patterns, and are maximally expressed at the G1-S transition (16-19). Brca1 mutations in mice result in genetic instability, defective G2/M checkpoint control and reduced homologous recombination (7). Exposure of cells to ionizing radiation or hydroxyurea causes dispersal of Brca1 foci and relocalization to sites

of DNA-synthesis where DNA repair may occur (18). Brca1 is phosphorylated during S-phase and is also phosphorylated in response to DNA damage (18,20).

### **Body**

In the course of identifying BRCA1-associated proteins by mass spectrometry, we identified ATM and confirmed this association by reciprocal co-immunoprecipitation. Given this physical association, we tested whether ATM was required for phosphorylation of Brcal in response to DNA damage. We found several phosphorylation sites and showed they were ATM targets in vivo. This was all detailed in the previouss project report. Since then we have gone on to determine what other molecules might be required to help ATM phosphorylate BRCA1 since these proteins might also be tumor suppressors in the breast. We focussed on a BRCA1-related protein 53BP1. 53BP1 was originally identified through its ability to bind to the tumor suppressor protein p53 through 53BP1's C-terminal BRCT (Brca1 carboxyl terminus) repeats (21,22) which are found in many DNA damage response proteins (3-8). 53BP1 responds to DNA double strand breaks (29-32), quickly relocalizing to discrete nuclear foci upon exposure to IR. These foci colocalize with those of the Mre11/Nbs1/Rad50 complex, BRCA1 and phosphorylated γ-H2AX which are thought to facilitate recruitment of repair factors to damaged DNA (29-3). In response to IR, 53BP1 is phosphorylated in an ATM (ataxia telangiectasia mutated) dependent manner (30-32), but its role in the DNA damage response is unclear.

To determine 53BP1's role, small interfering RNAs (siRNA) in the form of two independent, non-overlapping 21-base pair RNA duplexes targeting 53BP1, were used to inhibit its expression (33). U2OS cells were transfected with these siRNA oligos and,

within three days post transfection, a portion of cells had undergone cell death (data not shown). A similar phenotype was also observed in two other cell lines, Hct116 and Saos2 (data not shown).

To determine whether 53BP1 plays a role in DNA damage cell cycle checkpoints, we examined the response of 53BP1-inhibited cells to IR. IR induces the intra-S-phase checkpoint which reduces DNA synthesis. Unlike the control cells, 53BP1-inhibited

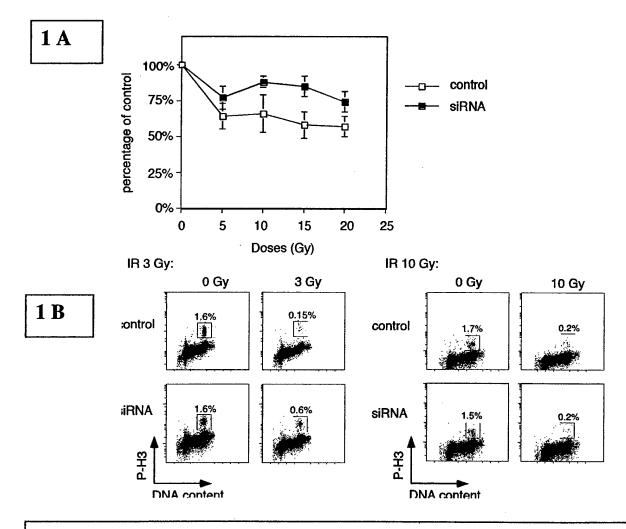


Fig. 1. 53BP1 inhibition results in defective IR-induced intra-S-phase and G2/M checkpoints. (A) IR-induced intra-S-phase checkpoint. Replicative DNA synthesis was assessed 30 min after various doses of ionizing irradiation in U2OS cells transfected with oligos. The DNA synthesis in unirradiated cultures was set to 100% for cells transfected with control oligos or siRNA oligos against 53BP1. (B) Analysis of the G2/M DNA damage checkpoint. Cells were either untreated or irradiated with either 3 Gy or 10 Gy as indicated, then incubated for 1 hour at 37 °C prior to fixation. Cells in mitosis were determined by staining with propidium iodide and antibody to phospho-histone H3 and percentage of the M-phase cells was determined by flow cytometry.

cells showed radio-resistant DNA synthesis (Fig. 1A). This was also seen in Saos2 and Hela cells with both siRNAs (data not shown) and indicates a role of 53BP1 in the intra-S phase checkpoint.

To assess the G2/M checkpoint, 53BP1-inhibited and control cells were irradiated with 3 or 10 Gy of ionizing radiation. Approximately three-fold more 53BP1-inhibited cells entered into mitosis than the control cells treated with 3 Gy (Fig. 1B). However, inhibition of 53BP1 had no effect following 10 Gy IR. Therefore, 53BP1-inhibited cells also displayed an IR-induced G2/M checkpoint defect. The fact that 53BP1-inhibited cells were only defective in response to lower doses of irradiation indicates the existence of an alternative signaling pathway that operates at higher doses of IR.

As 53BP1 binds p53, we asked whether 53BP1 was required for p53 activation in response to IR. P53 induction in response to IR was significantly decreased in 53BP1-inhibited cells (Fig. 2).

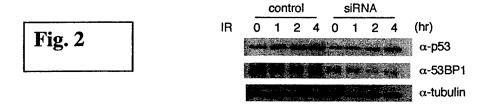


Fig. 2. 53BP1 regulates p53 in response to IR. IR-induced p53 stabilization. U2OS cells were transfected with siRNA oligos against 53BP1 or control oligos for two days, then exposed to 10Gy ionizing irradiation. Cell lysates were made from samples at indicated times recovered from irradiation and separated on SDS-PAGE gel. Western blots were performed using anti-53BP1, anti-tubulin and anti-p53 antibodies.

53BP1 forms foci that overlap with BRCA1 foci in response to DNA damage. Generally there are more 53BP1 foci than BRCA1 foci and they appear to form faster than BRCA1. To test whether 53BP1 might be required for BRCA1 foci, we examined the ability of proteins to form foci in the absence of 53BP1. Brca1, Nbs1, and γ-H2AX all

form foci in response to IR (36). IR-induced Brca1 foci formation was largely abolished in 53BP1-inhibited cells. Brca1 showed diffuse staining and rarely formed distinctive foci in response to IR at different time points. In an asynchronous cell population, at 2 hr post-IR, only 4% of the cells formed Brca1 nuclear foci when cells were treated with 53BP1siRNA, compared to 60% of the control cells. Similar results were obtained in Hct116 and Hela cells with both oligo pairs. In contrast, formation of  $\gamma$ -H2AX foci or Nbs1 foci after IR remained unchanged in cells treated with control oligos or siRNA oligos. Rad51 foci were also unchanged.

When asynchronous control cells were analyzed for Brca1 foci formation in the absence of IR, approximately 40% contained more than 20 Brca1 foci, reflecting the S phase and G2 population. In 53BP1-inhibited cells, both the number of foci and the percentage of cells containing foci were reduced. Only 12% of 53BP1-inhibited cells contained more than 20 Brca1 foci. To control for cell cycle differences, we synchronized cells using a double-thymidine block, and S-phase cells (4 hours after release from the block) were used for immunostaining. BRCA1 foci were also dependent on 53BP1 in S-phase cells in the presence or absence of ionizing irradiation.

Although the IR-induced foci formation of Brca1 is dependent on the presence of 53BP1, Brca1 foci did not show complete colocalization with 53BP1 foci at early times. The strong effect on BRCA1 foci formation, coupled with the fact that the 53BP1 and BRCA1 foci do not initially fully overlap suggests that 53BP1 may regulate BRCA1 through a mechanism other than direct recruitment to foci. One means by which this might be achieved is through regulation of BRCA1 phosphorylation. In IR-treated cells,

Brca1 phosphorylation was reduced in the samples prepared from cells treated with siRNA oligos against 53BP1 relative to controls (Fig. 3A).

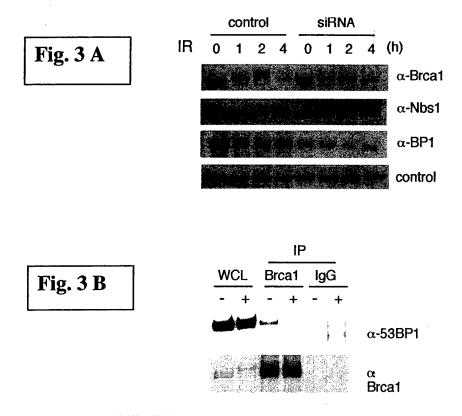


Fig. 3. 53BP1 regulation of Brca1. (A) Brca1 phosphorylation is reduced in the absence of 53BP1. U2OS cells were treated with siRNA oligos against 53BP1 or control oligos for two days. Cells were exposed to 10 Gy irradiation and cell lysates were prepared at indicated times after irradiation. Immunoblots were performed with antibodies against Brca1 (Oncogene), Nbs1 (Norvus) and 53BP1. The control band is a non-specific band from the same blot that was incubated with antibodies against Brca1. (B) 53BP1 associates with Brca1. Cell lysates from untreated U2OS cells or 2 hour after exposure to 10 Gy IR were incubated with antibodies against Brca1 or rabbit IgG as a control. Western blots were performed using anti-53BP1 and anti-Brca1 antibodies (Oncogene). Ten percent of the cell lysate used for immunoprecipitation were loaded in the control lanes (WCL).

As with the G2/M checkpoint, the strongest dependency of Brca1 phosphorylation appeared to be at lower doses of IR (not shown). High levels of IR have been shown to obscure BRCA1 regulation by other proteins such as ATM (38). Loss of 53BP1 did not have a general effect on the DNA damage-inducible phosphorylation of other proteins. Nbs1 phosphorylation was not affected (Fig. 3A). Furthermore, while BRCA1

phosphorylation showed less dependency on 53BP1 at 50Gy IR, these cells still failed to form foci (data not shown).

Next we examined whether 53BP1 associated with BRCA1. Brca1 interacts with 53BP1 in vivo, and this interaction was abolished in response to IR (Fig. 3B). Thus, this dynamic association is likely to be important for regulation of 53BP1's ability to regulate BRCA1 function in response to DNA damage.

## **Key research Accomplishments**

- A) Discovery that 53BP1 controls p53 activation
- B) Discovery that 53BP1 binds to BRCA1 and releases it after DNA damage
- C) Discovery that 53BP1 controls BRCA1 phosphorylation.

## **Reportable outcomes**

None yet to report.

## **Conclusions**

The major finding of these studies is that 53BP1 is a critical transducer of the DNA damage signal and is required for both the intra-S phase and G2/M checkpoints. It is clearly part of a partially redundant branch of the signaling apparatus and its loss results in a partial decrease in phosphorylation of key checkpoint target proteins. As it binds to p53, and Brca1 and controls BRCA1 phosphorylation, it has the property of a

mammalian adaptor or mediator that might recruit a subset of substrates to the ATM/ATR-ATRIP checkpoint kinases.

A second key finding of this study is that the pathway leading to the assembly of repair/signaling foci in response to damage is branched and shows a regulatory hierarchy in which H2AX is required for Nbs1 and 53BP1 foci (39) and 53BP1 controls the ability of at least BRCA1 but not Nbs1 to form foci. The nature of this disruption in foci formation is unknown but may be related to the role of 53BP1 in control of phosphorylation of these or other proteins. Regardless of the mechanism, it is clear that 53BP1 is a central transducer of the DNA damage signal to BRCA1 and other tumor suppressor proteins and is likely to play an important role in the maintenance of genomic stability and prevention of cancer (40,41).

### References

- 1. K. W. Kinzler, B. Vogelstein, *Nature* **386**, 761 (1997).
- 2. K. Savitsky, et al., Science 268, 1749 (1995).
- 3. P. Athma, R. Rappaport, M. Swift, Cancer Genet. Cytogenet. 92, 130 (1996); N. Janin, et al., Br. J. Cancer 80, 1042 (1999).
- 4. R. Wooster, et al., *Nature* **378**, 789 (1995); S. V. Tavtigian, et al., *Nat. Genet.* **12**, 333 (1996).
- 5. A. Elson, et al., *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **93**, 13084 (1996); Y. Xu, et al., *Genes Dev.* **10**, 2411 (1996); F. Connor, et al., *Nat. Genet.* **17**, 423 (1997); A. Suzuki, et al., *Genes Dev.* **11**, 1242 (1997); T. Ludwig, D. L. Chapman, V. E. Papaioannou, A. Efstratiadis, *Genes Dev.* **11**, 1226 (1997); K. J. Patel, et al., *Mol. Cell* **1**, 347 (1998); G.

- Rotman, Y. Shiloh, Hum. Mol. Genet. 7, 1555 (1998); S. X. Shen, et al., Oncogene 17, 3115 (1998).
- 6. S. K. Sharan, et al., *Nature* **386**, 804 (1997).
- 7. X. Xu, et al., Mol. Cell 3, 389 (1999); M.E. Maynahan, J.W. Chiu, B.H. Koler, M. Jasin, Mol. Cell, in press.
- 8. S. J. Elledge, Science 274, 1664 (1996).
- 9. C. E. Canman, et al., Science 281, 1677 (1998).
- 10. R. Baskaran, et al., *Nature* 387, 516 (1997); S. Banin, et al., *Science* 281, 1674 (1998).
- 11. S. Matsuoka, M. Huang, S. J. Elledge, *Science* **282**, 1893 (1998); Chaturvedi P., et al., *Oncogene* **18**, 4047 (1999). A. Blasina et al., *Curr. Biol.* **9**, 1 (1999).
- 12. A. L. Brown, et al., *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S.A.* **96**, 3745 (1999).
- 13. T. Shafman, et al., *Nature* **387**, 520 (1997).
- D. Blocher, D. Sigut, M. A. Hannan, Int. J. Radiat. Biol. 60, 791 (1991); T. K. Pandita, W. N. Hittelman, Radiat. Res. 131, 214 (1992); N. Foray, et al., Int. J. Radiat. Biol. 72, 271 (1997). Johnson, R.T. et al., Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 261, 317 (1999).
- A. K. C. Wong, R. Pero, P. A. Ormonde, S. V. Tavtigian, P. L. Bartel, J. Biol. Chem. 272, 31941 (1997); R. Mizuta, et al., Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 94, 6927 (1997);
   L. Y. Marmorstein, T. Ouchi, S. A. Aaronson, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 95, 13869 (1998).
- R. Scully, et al., Cell 88, 265- (1997); J. J. Chen, D. Silver, S. Cantor, D. M. Livingston, R. Scully, Cancer Res. 59, 1752 (1999).
- 17. J. Chen, et al., Mol. Cell 2, 317 (1998).
- 18. R. Scully, et al., Cell 90, 425 (1997).

- J. P. Vaughn, et al., Cancer Res. 56, 4590 (1996); J. P. Vaughn, et al., Cell Growth
   Differ. 7, 711 (1996); J. V. Rajan, S. T. Marquis, H. P. Gardner, L. A. Chodosh, Dev. Biol.
   184, 385 (1997); P. E. Blackshear, et al., Oncogene 16, 61 (1998).
- Y. Chen, et al., Cancer Res. 56, 3168 (1996); H. Ruffner, I. M. Verma, Proc. Natl.
   Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 94, 7138 (1997).
- 21. K. Iwabuchi, P. L. Bartel, B. Li, R. Marraccino, S. Fields, *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 91, 6098 (1994).
- 22. K. Iwabuchi et al., J Biol Chem 273, 26061 (1998).
- 23. I. Callebaut, J. P. Mornon, FEBS Lett 400, 25 (1997).
- 24. P. Bork et al., Faseb J 11, 68 (1997).
- 25. Y. Saka, F. Esashi, T. Matsusaka, S. Mochida, M. Yanagida, *Genes Dev* 11, 3387 (1997).
- 26. X. Zhang et al., Embo J 17, 6404 (1998).
- 27. R. S. Williams, R. Green, J. N. Glover, *Nat Struct Biol* **8**, 838 (2001).
- 28. W. S. Joo et al., Genes Dev 16, 583 (2002).
- 29. L. B. Schultz, N. H. Chehab, A. Malikzay, T. D. Halazonetis, *J Cell Biol* **151**, 1381 (2000).
- 30. I. Rappold, K. Iwabuchi, T. Date, J. Chen, J Cell Biol 153, 613 (2001).
- 31. L. Anderson, C. Henderson, Y. Adachi, Mol Cell Biol 21, 1719 (2001).
- 32. Z. Xia, J. C. Morales, W. G. Dunphy, P. B. Carpenter, *J Biol Chem* **276**, 2708 (2001).
- 33. S. M. Elbashir et al., Nature 411, 494 (2001).
- 34. W. S. Joo et al., Genes Dev 16, 583 (2002).

- 36. B. B. Zhou, S. J. Elledge, Nature 408, 433 (2000).
- 37. I. M. Ward, X. Wu, J. Chen, J Biol Chem 276, 47755 (2001).
- 38. D. Cortez, Y. Wang, J. Qin, S. J. Elledge, Science 286, 1162 (1999).
- 39. A. Celeste et al., Science 296, 922 (2002).